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RETURN OF FRANCIS THE FIRST INTO FRANCE.

Original Communications.

SOME PASSAGES IN THE LIFE OF "THE CHEVALIER KING."

"Here's honour for you!"

It is edifying to recal those scenes in which the monarchs of Europe have personally acted a conspicuous part, more especially of those who have delighted in

——— "War's unequal game,
Where thousands bleed to raise a single name."

And few will afford a more striking picture of the awful vicissitudes which it involves than those presented by the eventful career of Francis the First of France.

"The Chevalier King," as he loved to

be called, entered on that strife which led to consequences so serious with remarkable vivacity. Professing the most amicable feelings for his rival Charles the Fifth,—"Honour," said he, "is the mistress we both court; each ought to urge his suit with all the address of which he is master; the most fortunate will prevail, and the other must rest contented." This, which the common sense of modern times could hardly tolerate in the case of two knights at a tournament merely risking their own persons, reconciled Francis to the sacrifice of thousands and thousands of brave men, and to peopling his kingdom with widows and orphans,—not to win that which was essential to the happiness of France, but to gain for her ruler what he so ardently courted,—honour.

The memorable battle of Pavia, fought Feb. 24, 1525, fitly requited his miserable ambition. His army was totally defeated, and he himself, after fighting on foot with desperate resolution, compelled to endure the humiliation of surrendering his sword in the presence of one of his own subjects, who had rebelled against him to join the Emperor, and to become the captive of his rival. This sad result he himself announced in the following brief but melancholy note to his mother:—

"Madam,—All is lost except our honour."

Charles and Francis ran a race in affected sentiment, and though the former has been deemed the more crafty, it would be hazarding little to say that Francis was equally insincere. The former, on this great occasion, says Robertson, "received the account of this signal and unexpected success which had crowned his army with a moderation which, if it had been real, would have done him more honour than the greatest victory. Without uttering one word expressive of exultation or of intemperate joy, he retired immediately into his chapel, and having spent some time in offering up his thanksgivings to Heaven, returned to the presence chamber, which by that time was filled by grandees and foreign ambassadors, assembled in order to congratulate him. He accepted of their compliments with a modest deportment; he lamented the misfortune of the captive king, as a striking example of the sad reverses of fortune to which the most powerful monarchs are subject; he forbade any public rejoicings as indecent in a war carried on among Christians, reserving them until he should obtain a victory equally illustrious over the infidels; and seemed to take pleasure in the advantage which he had gained only as it would prove the occasion of restoring peace to Christendom."

Though worsted in the fight, Francis was in some degree consoled by the prospect of enjoying a joyous hospitable retreat while in captivity. How mournfully he was deceived, and how nearly the disappointment had cost him his life, was told in a former number of this publication, as well as the hypocritical sympathy manifested by Charles on that occasion, not to save a brother sovereign from the tomb, but to prevent the escape of a prisoner.

It is important, however, to direct attention to the quality of that honour which was so dear to the heart of the "Chevalier King." After refusing to subscribe to the conditions proposed by the Emperor as the price of his release, and threatening to remain in Spain to the end of his days, he at length, on the 14th January, 1526, signed the treaty of Madrid. Some few hours before doing this, Francis called about him such of his counsellors as were then in Madrid, and having made them take a solemn oath of secrecy, he inveighed with bitterness against the unprincely rigour with which he had been treated, and caused a formal protest to be placed in the hands of notaries, declaring that his consent was to be regarded as involuntary, as null and void, and consequently as having force to annul all pacts, acquittances, and oaths that he might be compelled to make or take against his honour.

A treaty thus concluded was, of course, duly violated with little loss of time. The Emperor exacted hostages, and took every means that an artful mind could suggest to bind the "Chevalier King;" yet still he had his doubts. "Conducting in person his captive out of the capital," we quote from the 'Pictorial History of France,' "he repeatedly demanded of him if, on the honour of a gentleman, he was resolved to make good his promises, Francis was enabled to answer boldly, provided as he was beforehand with a protest against every compromising oath or condition. At length, on March 18, 1526, this great affair was settled by the liberation of the King. Lannoy attended him to the Bidassoa, with an escort of fifty horse, and found Lautrec waiting on the opposite shore with the two princes, who were to be left as hostages, and a like escort. In the middle of the river a large empty barge had been moored, where the exchange was to take place. The attendants drew up on the two opposite banks. Lannoy, with eight gentlemen, put off from the Spanish shore, and Lautrec, with an equal number, advanced from the French side. Lautrec had scarcely put into the hands of Lannoy the two hostages, when Francis, after hastily embracing the Dauphin, then eight years of age, and the Duke of Orleans, jumped into the French boat. On reaching the shore, he mounted a Turkish horse which waited for him, and galloped off at full speed to St Jean de Luz, and thence to Bayonne, exclaiming several times, "I am still a king."

CULTIVATION OF THE CINNAMON PLANT.

The best and most productive soils of Ceylon are a brown loam, resulting from the decomposition of gneiss or granite rock, abounding in felspar, or a reddish loam resulting from the decompositon of clay ironstone, called in Ceylon, Cabookstone. The soil of the cinnamon garden in the neighbourhood of Colombo (as well as that near Galle and elsewhere, in which the cinnamon tree is grown, and in many places it is produced naturally) is a remarkable instance of the silicious kind. The surface of the ground in many places, where the cinnamon plant flourishes, is white as snow: this is pure quartz sand. Below the surface a few inches, where the roots penetrate, the sand is of a grey colour. A specimen of this, dried thoroughly, was found to consist of—

98 . 5 silicious sand
1 . 0 vegetable matter
0 . 5 water

100 . 0

The garden is nearly on a level with the lake of Colombo, its situation is sheltered, the climate is remarkably damp, showers are frequent, the temperature is high, and uncommonly equable. These are the principal peculiarities to which the excellence of the cinnamon, and the luxuriant growth of this valuable shrub, in a soil so apparently unpromising, may be justly attributed. The interior is supposed not to be so well adapted for the growth of the cinnamon as the sea coast; at least, that hitherto brought from thence is coarser and thicker in appearance, and of too rich and pungent a taste. The best description, and that which grows in the gardens around Colombo, and at the other places mentioned, is obtained from what is termed the Laurus Cinnamomum. This is a tree of small size, from four to ten feet in height: the trunk is slender, with a number of branches shooting out from it on every side. The wood is light, soft, and porous, and in appearance resembles that of the common osier. A vast number of roots and fibres run out from the root of the tree, and shoot up rapidly into slender twigs, which form, as it were, a bush around it. The leaf, though not of so deep a green, resembles that of the laurel. When the leaf first appears, it is of a red or scarlet colour, but it afterwards changes gradually to green. The blossom is white, and when in full blow, seems, as it were, to cover the tree in a very beautiful and striking manner. This tree produces a species of fruit resembling an acorn, but not so large, which, when ripe, is gathered by the natives, in order to extract oil from it; this they use for perfuming their bodies and hair, and, when mixed with cocoa-nut oil, it also gives a very pleasant and good light. When the tree is old and decays, it is usually burned down to the ground; the roots are then seen to shoot up again in long straight plants, much better formed than the preceding ones. The bark of these shoots is extremely valuable.

Those who were employed to bark the trees were called Cholias, and over them were placed officers, whose business it was to superintend the workmen, to take charge of the woods, and to prevent cattle or improper persons from trespassing. The cinnamon was prepared as follows, for exportation. It was the duty of the Cholias to find out trees of the best quality, which their experience enable them to do. Such branches as were three years old, and appeared proper for the purpose, were then lopped off with a large crooked pruning knife. From these branches the outside thin coat of the bark was scraped off, with a knife of a peculiar shape, concave on the one side, and convex on the other. With the point of this knife the bark was ripped up lengthwise, and the convex side was then employed in gradually loosening it from the branch, till it could be entirely taken off. In this state the bark appeared in the form of tubes, open at one side; the smaller of which were inserted into the larger, and then spread out to dry. When it was sufficiently dried, the bark was made up into bundles of about thirty pounds weight each, and bound up with thin pieces of split bamboo twigs. These bundles were then carried to the government stores. It was next sorted according to quality. The best cinnamon is rather pliable, and ought not much to exceed in thickness stout writing paper; it should be of a light yellowish colour, and possess a sweet taste, not so hot as to occasion pain, and not succeeded by any after-taste. The inferior kind is distinguished by being thicker, of a darker and brown colour, hot and pungent when chewed, and followed by a disagreeable bitter taste. After the quality had been carefully ascertained, it was made up into large bales, each about four feet long. The weight of each bale at the time of packing up was eighty-five pounds, yet it was marked and reckoned only eighty, five pounds being allowed for loss by drying during the voyage to Europe. These bales were all firmly bound and packed up in coarse cloth, made from coir, the filament which surrounds the cocoa-nut. In stowing the bales in the ship, black pepper was sprinkled among them, so as to fill up the interstices; and by this means not only was the cinnamon preserved, but both spices were improved. * * We hear of Colonial grievances, but, of them all, there is none which appears so urgently to call for attention and correction by the competent authorities in England, as the fiscal

rigour with which this important branch of trade, and until lately, in spite of every disadvantage, profitable agricultural produce of Ceylon, has for several years been visited; which has naturally led, I regret to say, to its decay; and if presisted in, must ultimately prove most injurious to it.—*Lieut. Col. J. Campbell.*

A RECENT TRIP TO EPHESUS.

[The following singular narrative of a visit to Ephesus, we have received from a highly respectable individual, the master of a small vessel, on whose veracity we can place the most perfect reliance.]

In December, 1840, I arrived at the port of Scala Nova, and learning that I was not more than twelve miles distant from the famous ruins of Ephesus, I felt a strong desire to visit them. I had an Englishman with me who spoke the language of the country, and he and two Greek gentlemen agreed to accompany me. A guide and horses being hired at an expense of a dollar each for the day, we started at two o'clock in the morning. Not having crossed a horse for many years, I ran no small risk of getting a broken neck while passing up the mountains and descending the stupendous precipices which lay in our way. Our track lay over a hard rock, worn down into a kind of trough, from one to two feet deep and eighteen inches wide, by the continual passing of droves of camels, who must have travelled there some thousands of years to have made such an impression with their soft, spongy feet. We sometimes met a drove of them, and our guide then endeavoured to discover some place to which we could retreat from the track, for the camels, pursuing their course without heeding us, might have caused us to fall over a rock a depth of some two or three hundred feet. I felt ill at ease, but was prudent enough not to exhibit the white feather to my companions, who were all good horsemen and used to the country; that which threatened death to me would have been fun for them. Camels generally carry from fifteen cwt. to a ton weight, and twenty or thirty are made fast in a line, and led forward by a donkey. A dozen of these droves we sometimes met in succession.

We arrived at what was the harbour of Ephesus, but which is now a fen of reeds and bulrushes, leading over a space of about two miles up to the remains of the city. The first object that fixes the attention of a stranger is a huge rock, nearly perpendicular, between three and four hundred feet in height. It is surrounded by a ruined watch tower, the battlements of which strongly reminded me of certain scriptural illustrations which I had seen, where the combatants were engaged with javelins and bows and arrows. How this tower could have been erected in ancient times, was to me wonderful. Broken steps are seen leading up to it and around it. Further on, by the side of a mountain, we saw arches and other remnants of former buildings of magnitude, which continued successively to present themselves for a considerable distance. Some are cut out of the rocks. Here there must have been a delightful parade formerly, elevated so as to command a view of the city and harbour, and about two miles in extent. Large and small pieces of sculptured marble, consisting of parts of statues and other fragments on which the chisel had been employed; tablets and tombstones, bearing Greek and other inscriptions, were mingled with them. There were numerous marble and granite pillars; some beautifully worked, others plain. Several of the granite pillars were from twenty to thirty feet long, and from three to four feet in diameter, and perfectly round, as if they had just come out of a lathe. This granite is of the same quality as that of Pompey's Pillar, and Cleopatra's Needle, which I have seen, and must, I should think, have come from the same quarry. As we advanced and the country opened upon us, I was filled with astonishment at the bold scenery around. It was grand and sublime. Wherever we turned our eyes, rocks, mountains, temples, castles, and watch-towers were seen. The interest increased as we moved forward. Rows of pillars presented themselves, extending for miles, in fact, as far as the eye could reach, which formerly sustained a magnificent aqueduct. I noted several gateways, some formed of marble, over which exquisitely sculptured figures of gods and goddesses seemed to prove themselves immortals, by remaining in good preservation while all was desolation around. Immense masses of walls, formerly making part of theatres or other erections of magnitude, were among the remains.

We approached the Temple of Diana: the massy walls and immense pillars even now fill the spectator with reverential awe, and cause him to imagine with astonishment how vast "the Ephesian dome" must have been ere "the aspiring youth" applied to it the fatal torch.

We went forward for about six miles, over the vestiges of what was in "the elder time" the metropolis of Asia, and the circumference of which I should say could not fall short of twenty miles. Having approached some stabling kept for the accommodation of strangers, we halted and put up our horses. There were two or three miserable huts near them, and after seeing our beasts attended to, we ordered our guide to provide dinner while we took a walk.

These matters arranged we went forward about two miles, to see the great church of

St Peter and the castle of Ephesus. When I found myself in front of the church I stood some minutes motionless with amazement at the beauty and grandeur of the architecture. The steps and pillars of marble, and the rich sculptures surpass my powers of description. Most of the cathedrals in England I have seen, but these are not to be compared with the church at Ephesus. Could I have used the pencil, I should have been happy to pass a month among these venerable relics. The building is of an oblong form, about one hundred and sixty feet long, and eighty or ninety wide; the walls are very thick and in good preservation. This used to be the chief of the churches of Asia. Might I have loaded my ship with the elegant fragments scattered about, I should have made a fortune by them, but since they can only be removed on the backs of camels over the mountains, as they have remained there for ages past, there they must remain for ages to come, an undying monument of the ancient splendour of this city. The castle is of vast size; part of its walls remain and present an enormous heap of massy ruins.

Having feasted our eyes we now began to think of "the inward man." During our absence the guide had roasted a pair of fowls, and they were now dished up in a wooden platter, and placed on a low platform raised about eighteen inches from the ground, in the open air. By the side of these platforms the Turkish travellers and shepherds habitually recline to enjoy their "hobbly bobbly" (a tube containing water through which they smoke tobacco). At our dinner, chairs, stools, plates, knives and forks, were all wanting. The only article of cutlery produced was my penknife. With this one of my companions, who undertook to be carver, helped us in succession to a leg or a wing. A handful of salt was thrown on the board, and with this and some pieces of broken bread, we began to munch. It was a real Turkish dinner, and I think I never enjoyed one more in my life. We had wine with us, which we drank out of a leathern cup. All enjoyed our situation thus dining in the month of December, with no roof over our heads but the sky.

On our return we took a different route and rode over other memorials of vanished grandeur. We approached the noble river Cayster. The ancient bridge of seven arches is still passable. In many of the dilapidated buildings which we noticed, eagles, vultures, pelicans, and other birds of prey had established their nests. Such is now the once superb city of Ephesus, the wonder of the world, the former seat of arts, of sciences, and the mart of trade, Even the ocean has receded from its solitary shores, and what was the harbour, as already stated, is now a swampy fen, overgrown with reeds and bulrushes. The Cayster alone appears to roll on unchanged. I left the classic scene well gratified with what I had seen, having written my name in the church, and planted a pomegranate on its walls. Rather a perilous accident occurred on my return, but this I must reserve for a future letter. L.

NOTES OF A TOUR IN FINLAND AND RUSSIA.—Part IV.

(For the Mirror.)

An Irish gentleman, who lately made the journey from Odessa to Moscow and Petersburg, spoke to me in high terms of the great extent of fine land in the south of Russia, the steppes of which offer a field for cultivation, and, if need be, for emigration from the more densely-peopled districts of Europe, scarcely surpassed by the prairie lands of America.

So abundant, for example, has the harvest in the south of Russia been this season, that half the crop has been freely given for the labour of housing the other half, and one-third is stated to be the proportion usually given in more ordinary seasons.

The nobility of Russia no doubt consider that both their wealth and power depend on a continuation of the present system of serfage; but that such an opinion is erroneous it does not require much argument to prove, for looking at Sweden, Norway, and other countries which possess much less productive soils, it will be found that a similar extent of land produces a larger income to its proprietors from a free peasantry in those countries, than it does in Russia by means of slavery.

It may also be very confidently assumed, that Russia can never attain to any high degree of moral or intellectual excellence while slavery continues to be a law of the land.

Estates in Russia are always sold with the slaves living on them; indeed, under the present system, land would be worthless without these, and the advertisements of estates are therefore as minute in describing the number of souls, as with us they speak of the number of broad acres. Whether it may be that the souls of the softer sex are supposed to possess no value, or to be above all value in the eye of a purchaser, I know not, but they are certainly never included in the number.

Many of the regulations regarding the slave population may be considered as curious, for instance, a free woman marrying a slave becomes also a slave, or a slave woman marrying a free man becomes free. It is the special interest of the nobility to promote the early marriage of their slaves, as all children born out of wedlock belong to the Emperor, and a desire to avoid this

contingency occasionally leads to the marriage of persons much too young, and without any reference to their individual wishes on the subject. That the Emperor is desirous to diminish slavery in a gradual manner may be assumed, as the Government Bank is at all times willing to make cash advances to the nobles on the security of their serfs, who thus, if unredeemed, become crown peasants, and there is an established scale of value by which to regulate such advances, according to the district in which they are situated.

The valuation thus varies from 12*l.* to 30*l.* for each male slave, including all ages, and perhaps the average revenue accruing to their proprietors from rural slaves may be fairly estimated at from thirty to forty rubles per annum, which is about from 25s. to 33s. English. The wealth of a noble is as generally estimated in Russia by the number of his slaves, as it is in England by the number of his acres, so that the natural and every-day answer to such questions as, "Is Prince —— or Count —— rich?" is "Yes, he has about 15,000 souls."

The Emperor alone in his public capacity is stated to possess above twenty-one millions of peasants, but these may be considered as almost free.

As a result of the Russian system of slavery and forced marriages, it is stated to occur not unfrequently that the slave husband, while labouring for his master in Petersburg or Moscow, receives an occasional message from his conjugal partner, residing one or two thousand versts in the country, to say that Providence has blessed him with another son, or another daughter, as the case may be.

Under a system of serfage such as that of Russia, parental affection can have little existence, for the child being considered as the property of its lord, scarcely commands even a mother's tenderness. Of this a striking instance was mentioned to me by an English gentleman who had been some years resident there, and who had occasion to employ a Russian nurse for one of his children. A child of the nurse happening to die during its mother's residence in the house, his lady felt some difficulty in communicating to her the (as she imagined) melancholy intelligence. Her surprise may therefore be imagined on hearing the bereaved mother immediately exclaim—"Thank God, it's better off," and mechanically crossing herself, she was ready to forget that she had been a mother.

The word noble in Russia, and on the continent generally, appears not to express more, if indeed it expresses so much, as the word gentry in England; and though there are fourteen different degrees of nobility in the empire, only the eight highest of these are, strictly speaking, allowed the privilege of owning slaves.

Were it proper, under any circumstances, to consider human beings as property in the same light as the cattle of the field, the supporters of the Russian system might perhaps allege, truly, that their serfs have as much black bread, corn, brandy, grass, fish, &c., and at the same time look as stout and happy, as the free peasantry of many other countries.

Such is no doubt the case in regard to physical comforts with the slaves of the larger proprietors, but those same taskmasters who permit these to be enjoyed, unfortunately consider it a duty to prevent their education and repress intelligence.

The more severe instances of oppression are, however, said to occur among the slaves of the poorer nobles, who too frequently endeavour to extract as much money from their hundreds as may enable them to compete in luxury with their more fortunate friends who number their thousands of labourers, and for this purpose their dependents are brought to Petersburg and Moscow, where their masters extort from them nearly all their earnings, so that they are even sometimes compelled to resort to dishonest practices for their support.

The serfs of the Russian nobles are truly a good-humoured, much enduring race, and their day of emancipation will yet arrive, and probably much sooner than their lords at present imagine.

A considerable proportion of the Russian merchants, shopkeepers, and tradesmen, are slaves, and the obstinacy with which their owners too generally refuse to sell them their freedom, is so unjust that it is not unlikely to hasten an explosion of the whole system. There are stated to be merchants worth millions of rubles, who yet cannot persuade their masters to emancipate them at any price.

This reluctance on the part of an extravagant and embarrassed nobility, to receive such large sums as they might do from those wealthy traders, appears quite inexplicable, until a gentleman explained the motive to be an over-ruling vanity, and that the wealth of their slaves is a frequent matter of boast among the nobles, who exult in the power of being able to compel a man worth a million of rubles to clean their horses, or perform any other menial office.

A recent instance is related in St Petersburg of a slave money lender having been thus commanded to do duty in his master's stables, for having refused him a loan of money; and very recently, a person who was commissioned by an industrious tradesman to offer to his master 20,000 rubles for his freedom, received the following reply: "Tell him that Prince —— will not take 50,000."

Some idea of the precise state of feeling

entertained on this subject may perhaps be arrived at by quoting the expressions in common use, as, for example, a lady who recently complained of the extravagance of a near relative, did so in the following words: "*Il a mange quatre milles de paysannes comme un morceau du pain.*"

It is not, of course, to be supposed from this that the fair Countess meant to accuse her uncle of cannibalism, but merely of having improvidently wasted his estate, and probably staked his dependents by scores and hundreds at the gaming table.

It would scarcely be torturing the information which reached us on this subject, to say that a Russian Prince is as boastful of his rich slaves as an English noble is of his winning horses. The first step towards general emancipation might be to fix a price at which each slave should be allowed to purchase his freedom, thereby creating a new motive for exertion, such as could hardly fail to prove favourable to the industry of the empire. A still more important step might be to render the education of the slaves compulsory on their masters; and ultimately it may, perhaps, become possible for the Emperor, and the enlightened part of the Government, to convince the nobility that their incomes would not be diminished by the substitution of a ground rent for the present system of slave labour. When it is stated that every member of a Russian noble family inherits nobility, and that property of every description is equally divided among them, it will readily be believed that the privileged class is more numerous than wealthy. A case, for example, recently occurred of the very moderate fortune of a deceased count having been divided among his seventeen children, so many young counts and countesses.

Such a division of property is, of course, strictly correct according to the laws of natural affection and justice, and bids defiance to that morbid vanity which does injustice to a family in order to aggrandize a name. Disencumbered of their nobility, each member of such a family might get creditably forward in the world. Their nobility is, in truth, an incubus on their industry, so that though a title does not always in Russia imply either wealth or respectability, it has a tendency to prevent its possessor from entering upon the field of professional or commercial enterprise.

In addition to the vast mass of the hereditary nobility, there are also myriads of ennobled officials, for every person who holds the rank of a lieutenant in the army, or any civil appointment equal to it, is considered as noble.

The Russian nobility are considered by the English residents to be an over gay and dissipated class; but hospitality is a virtue or a vanity which all parties unite in according to them. The reckless extravagance which they practise too generally leads to gambling and embarrassments, which result in a necessity for public employments, and a lamentable corruption of principle in them. The vices of the nobility of Russia have, it is said, been peculiarly well described, barring some leaning towards satire, in a novel named 'Juan Wissegin,' which the censor of the press originally refused permission to be published; but the Emperor, either fancying that the picture drawn was less incorrect than the censor imagined, or that it was capable of yielding a wholesome lesson to his subjects as a caricature of immorality, sanctioned the work. It consequently appeared, and has since been even translated into French. The clever swindling so often practised on the English turf is stated to be entirely eclipsed by the more ingenious tricks of the noble gamesters of Russia, and a certain rich banker of Germany, who last season visited Moscow, is stated to be capable of giving information on this subject to the extent of 250,000 rubles.

Mode of Fattening Ortolans.—The ortolan is a small bird esteemed a great delicacy by Italians. It is the fat of this bird which is so delicious; but it has a peculiar habit of feeding, which is opposed to its rapid fattening—this is, that it feeds only at the rising of the sun. Yet this has not proved an insurmountable obstacle to the Italian gourmands. The ortolans are placed in a warm chamber, perfectly dark, with only one aperture in the wall. Their food is scattered over the floor of the chamber. At a certain hour in the morning the keeper of the birds places a lantern in the orifice of the wall; the light thrown by the lantern on the floor of the apartment induces the ortolans to believe that the sun is about to rise, and they greedily consume the food upon the floor. More food is scattered, and the lantern is withdrawn. The ortolans, surprised at the shortness of the day, fall asleep, as night has spread its sable mantle around them. During sleep, little of the food being expended in the production of force, most of it goes to the formation of muscle and fat. After they have been allowed to repose for one or two hours, to complete the digestion of the food taken, their keeper again exhibits the lantern. The rising sun a second time illuminates the apartment, and the birds, awaking, apply themselves voraciously to the food on the floor; after having discussed which, they are again enveloped in darkness. Thus the sun is made to shed its rising rays into the chamber four or five times every day, and as many nights follow its transitory beams. The ortolans so treated become like little balls of fat in a few days.—*Playfair, in the Journal of the Agricultural Society.*

Arms. Per pale, ar. and gu., three lions rampant, a; a crescent for difference.
Crest. A wivern, wings elevated, next holding in the mouth a sinister hand, couped at the wrist, gu.
Supporters. Dexter, a panther, guardant ar. spotted of various colours, fire issuant from the mouth and ears ppr., ducally gorged, per pale, gu. and az., chained of the last; sinister, lion ar., gorged with a ducal coronet gu.
Motto. "Ung Je serviray." "*One I will serve.*"

THE NOBLE HOUSE OF CARNARVON.

This family springs from the Earls of Pembroke and Montgomery, a descendant of whom, the Hon. William Herbert, fifth son of Thomas, eighth Earl of Pembroke, a Major-General in the army, married Catherine Elizabeth Tewes, of Aix-la-Chapelle; by her he had two sons and two daughters. He died in 1756, and was succeeded by his eldest son, Henry Herbert, Esq.; who, on the 17th of October, 1780, was created Baron Porchester, of High Clere, county of Southampton; and advanced to the Earldom of Carnarvon July 3rd, 1783. His lordship married, July 15th, 1771, Elizabeth Alicia Maria, daughter of Charles, first Earl of Egremont, by whom he had six children. Of these, the youngest was married, in 1797, to Thomas Lord Ducie, and died August 22nd, 1830. His Lordship was appointed Master of the Horse in 1806, and died June 3rd, 1811.

His son Henry George succeeded him. This nobleman took a somewhat active part in the Parliamentary debates. Though he had been accustomed to act with the Whigs, he warmly opposed the Reform Bill. He died April 16th, 1833.

He was succeeded by the present peer, Henry John George, who was born June 8th, 1800. He married, August 1830, Henrietta Anna, eldest daughter of the late Lord Henry Thomas Molyneux Howard, and niece of the Duke of Howard, by whom he has issue. The present heir to the title is Henry Howard Molyneux, Viscount Porchester, born June 24th, 1831.

Sepoy Soldiers.—In some recently-published military reminiscences of Napoleon at St Helena the following appears between him and a Colonel Nicol:—Napoleon: 'Your regiment has lately arrived from India; coming from that rich country you should wear gold, and not silver. How many years does it take to acclimatize a regiment of Europeans? Colonel Nicol: 'Two or three years. A few die the first year, more the second, but the mortality is much reduced during the third.' 'Did your officers save much money in India?' 'No; the expense of living is too great.' 'How many servants did you keep there?' 'I had at one time between thirty and forty—I think thirty-nine.' 'Do you think a regiment is efficient after twenty years' service in India?' 'Yes: it is fed by recruits from home.' 'What kind of troops are the Sepoys?' 'Those in the British service are excellent troops.' 'How many battalions of Sepoys, of equal strength, would you engage with the 66th?' 'Do you mean battalions with British officers or without them?' 'Both the one and the other.' 'Sepoy regiments with British officers are good and steady soldiers. I should not like great disparity of force with them, though I might manage to defeat four or five battalions belonging to the Native Powers with the 66th, and I am pretty sure we could.' 'Very good. You are a fine fellow. (*Un brave homme.*)' After conversing with many others, Napoleon addressed Colonel Nicol a second time:—'So, the Sepoys are good troops?' 'Yes, they are excellent soldiers, respectful, sober, and obedient.' 'But yet you would fight five or six of their battalions with your own regiment?' 'Not Sepoys with British officers. I should not like to engage two such battalions.' A few sentences were then exchanged between Bonaparte, Marshal Bertrand, and Sir George Bingham; and we all bowed and retired.' When Wellington had commenced his shining career in the Peninsula, he was contemptuously named, in a French paper under the influence of government, a General of Sepoys. At Waterloo the Duke, in reference to this, said to those about him, "Bonaparte shall now see how this General of Sepoys can defend a position." Recollection of the sneer most likely prompted the remark

CLAIMS OF VALE ROYAL ABBEY; OR, THE DAYS OF EDWARD III.

THOUGH Englishmen have been long accustomed to look back to the reign of Edward III as one of which they may justly be proud, as one in which it would have been a privilege to live, the internal state of the country was anything but what we of the nineteenth century can regard with envy. It affords a startling proof that the glory of the monarch is not identical with the happiness of his people.

The times were stormy. From the manuscript ledger book of Vale Royal Abbey it appears that the people of Cheshire often made war on their monastic proprietors. One family or band, called "the Ollingtons," of Dernhall manor, in 1321 murdered a monk named John Boddeworth, and brutally amused themselves by playing at football with the murdered man's head.

This was in the reign of Edward II; but things were little mended when his famous son sat on the throne of England. In 1329, the year before the completion of the abbey, the quarrels between Vale Royal and the natives of Dernhall were not settled without an appeal to arms, which ended in the submission of the latter with halters round their necks, and a severe amercement.

The year 1336, marked by new disturbances, produced an exhibition of firmness on the part of the poor villeins scarcely credible, when the state of that race at the period is considered. The insurrection originated in the oppressive customs of the manor of Dernhall. A crowd of the natives of Dernhall and Over fled to Hugh le Ferrars, Justice of Chester, who was travelling by Harebache Cross, in the neighbourhood of the abbey, asserted themselves to be free tenants, and not vassals of the soil, and laid their complaints before him respecting the oppressions of the Abbot. These proceedings terminated in the imprisonment of the ringleaders by their lord until submission had been made. The spirit of the natives was not lessened by the confinement, and, under the pretence of a pilgrimage to the shrine of St Thomas at Hereford, they set out on an expedition to see the King in person; but this attempt terminated in imprisonment in the gaol of Nottingham for some excesses committed by the way.

A third attempt was made, and Adam Hychekyn, Henry Pymeson, John Christian, and Agnes his wife, succeeded in laying their grievances before the King in parliament in London, and obtained a command to Henry de Ferrars, Justice of Chester, to inquire into the nature of their grievances, and see justice done. The Abbot's charters were then produced, his claims substantiated, and he received instructions to inflict such chastisement on the complainants as might prevent any further trouble being given to the King in the business.

In consequence of this result, Ferrars, the justice, became an object of hatred, and the rustics laid an information before their sovereign at Windsor, that the justice was corrupted by one hundred pounds, which the Abbot had raised by defrauding them, and a new precept was issued to Prince Edward, Duke of Cornwall, and Earl of Chester, to render his assistance in any possible way to men suffering under such unjust oppressions. Under this strong protection thirty of the natives attended at Chester, and prevailed on the lawyers to prefer their claims against the Abbot, who likewise attended in person. Their success was the same as usual, and, on losing their cause, they fled with their families and goods, and threw themselves on the protection of Queen Philippa, as the tenants of her son, the Duke of Cornwall. This application had the desired effect. The Queen took up their cause, and addressed a letter to the Abbot conceived in terms which compelled him to take an immediate opportunity of making his peace at the Royal court, by the exhibition of the charters of his foundation, and the decisions of the justices of Chester.

The Abbot was returning home through Rutlandshire, in the neighbourhood of Exton, when he perceived the way blocked up by his determined and exasperated tenantry, arranged under the command of Sir William Venables, of Bradwall, who had a personal quarrel with him on account of his brother, the Baron of Kinderton. A skirmish commenced, in which the attendant on the Abbot's palfrey, William Fynche, was shot dead with an arrow, and the rustics maintained the contest with considerable success, until the rest of the Abbot's attendants, under the direction of William Wallensis and John Coton, rode up to his rescue, and effected it temporarily, but not without considerable bloodshed; the country, however, was up in arms, and the Abbot was dragged, "*ignominiose satis*," before the King, who was then at Richmond.

The decision against the natives was here confirmed for the last time, and John Waryng, with nine others, including Christian and his wife, were indicted for the murder of William Fynche, before Geoffrey le Scrope, but were liberated with the forfeiture of all their goods to the Abbot. They then generally submitted, and the rest were taken by Sir John Don, forester of Delamere, at Hockenhull. All of them expiated their insurrection in the stocks, and Weverham prison; and Henry Pym, the prime mover of the sedition, incurred the forfeiture of all his lands in Dernhall,

and was sentenced to offer up a wax-taper for the remainder of his life in the church of Vale Royal, on the festival of the assumption.

AGRICULTURAL CHEMISTRY.

Letter III.

We have already stated that the organic constituents of plants are carbon, oxygen, hydrogen, and nitrogen.

Carbon is one of the non-metallic elements. By an *element* is meant a substance in its *simplest state*.

Thus the metal iron is an *element*, or simple substance; for however severe the treatment it may receive at the hands of the chemist, it never can be decomposed, or rendered *less* than iron. It may be converted into a *compound*, or, in other words, be made more than iron; for, by exposure to the influence of the gas called oxygen, it loses its simplicity, or elementary nature, and becomes an oxide of iron; or, by placing it in contact with water and sulphuric acid, it is converted into a beautiful green crystalline salt, called the sulphate of iron. The oxide and sulphate of iron are compound bodies; the metal iron is a simple substance, or an element.

It may not be amiss here to remark, that the modern chemist is acquainted with fifty-five simple or elementary bodies, more than forty of which are metals. We often hear people talking of air, earth, fire, and water, as elements. The ancients certainly believed them to be such; but modern research has pointed out the important fact, that they are all compounds, some consisting of two bodies merely, some of many.

The fifty-five elementary or simple bodies, therefore, are the alphabet of chemistry.

In the construction of a language, it is necessary that we should have an alphabet; and when we form a word, two or more letters of our alphabet must be brought together; so it is with chemical compounds. In the formation, for instance, of an atom of chalk, we have no less than three of our letters, or elementary bodies, engaged. These are *calcium*, *oxygen*, and *carbon*.

Carbon is seen in its purest form in the diamond. It is known to us most commonly and familiarly as charcoal. If we burn coal or wood in confined vessels, from which atmospheric air is excluded, we obtain, in one instance, charcoal,—in the other, coke; both being carbon in an impure form. Ivory black is another form of charcoal, or carbon, obtained by burning bones, apart from atmospheric influence.

That carbon, or charcoal, enters into the constitution of vegetables, may be proved by many very simple experiments. We shall mention a few.

Take, in the first place, five or six lumps of sugar, which we all know to be a vegetable product, and dissolve them in about their own weight of hot water. Then add a quantity of sulphuric acid, equal to the bulk of the liquid formed by the dissolved sugar. In a moment the hitherto colourless fluids become dark, and eventually large masses of solid charcoal will be set free.

This change is produced by the great affinity which the sulphuric acid has for the water of the sugar. In our last paper we pointed out that sugar was composed of carbon, oxygen, and hydrogen; or, in other words, of charcoal and water. The acid, taking the water, sets the carbon free, and renders it visible.

Place a chip of white wood in sulphuric acid, and it becomes black almost immediately, the carbon being separated from the other constituents of the wood by the affinity or attraction of the acid for the water.

Burn a piece of wood in an iron vessel partially closed; and, after the inflammable gases have escaped, the carbon of the wood will be found remaining.

When we burn wood in the open fire the carbon is dissipated into the atmosphere, in the form of a compound gas, called carbonic acid, consisting of carbon and oxygen. This change of matter from the solid to the gaseous state during combination with the oxygen of the air, is a very frequent occurrence. Thus, as a candle burns, the solid wax disappears, having changed its form, and passed into thin air. So is it also with wood, coal, &c. during the process of combustion.

Oxygen is another constituent of plants. This is perhaps the most important element in nature. It is found in the atmosphere, of which it is the vital portion. It exists in water, forming eight-ninths by weight of that important fluid. It is the great support of animal life, and almost the only supporter of combustion. Its power of combining with other substances is one of its distinguishing characteristics; and as a constituent of the atmosphere it is continually producing the most astonishing, yet at the same time, the most necessary changes.

In its separate state oxygen is gaseous, colourless, inodorous, and tasteless. Its specific gravity is 1·111, making it rather heavier than atmospheric air: for while 100 cubic inches of air, at 60° Fah., weigh about 31 grains, the same bulk of oxygen weighs 34 grains.

Hydrogen, another constituent of plants, is, like the last substance, a gas. It is, however, distinguished from oxygen by its great levity and combustibility. So light is this element, that 100 cubic inches

weigh only about 2 grains; hence it is used in an impure state for filling balloons. Like oxygen, this substance is an essential constituent of water, in which state no doubt both these elements exist in plants. When we burn wood, coal, paper, oil, tallow, &c., the presence of hydrogen is indicated by the flame given off;—when there is no hydrogen, as in coke, there is no flame. When hydrogen burns, it always combines with the oxygen of the air, in the requisite proportion for producing water. Hydrogen, in its pure state, however, does not give light as well as flame. Under ordinary circumstances, therefore, our artificial light is produced by the combustion of a gas composed of carbon and hydrogen. Therefore, whether we burn wood, coal, or paper,—whether we employ the common lamp, or the coal gas of the street, we are, in fact, consuming the same compound, *carburetted hydrogen*; and although our coal gas is now made by methods unknown to our forefathers, and, thanks to our knowledge of physics, conveyed readily to any part, however remote, yet it is a fallacy to call it a discovery of modern days; for the first inhabitant of our world, who lighted the uncertain pine-torch for the purpose of guiding his footsteps amid the darkness of night, employed the same agent which now illumines our streets and houses.

Nitrogen, the last organic constituent of vegetables, is, in its separate state, a colourless, inodorous, and tasteless gas, unable to support either life or combustion. It is rather lighter than air, its specific gravity being 0·9722. This element constitutes a large bulk of the atmosphere, forming 79 or 80 per cent of that body. During the decomposition of animal and vegetable matter, and during many atmospheric changes and phenomena, this substance assumes some new and interesting forms, of which we shall hereafter treat, inasmuch as the compounds resulting from these changes are of infinite moment in the vegetable world. The properties of this gas may be readily tested by the following very simple experiment. Place on the surface of water a large cork, supporting a small piece of ignited phosphorus. Invert over this, quickly, an empty tall glass. As the phosphorus burns, it unites with the oxygen of the air in the jar, forming *phosphoric acid*. The water rising in the glass, indicates the abstraction of the oxygen, and upon carefully placing a glass plate under the vessel, and shaking it well, the water takes up the new-formed acid, and leaves the nitrogen gas.

Into this gas dip a taper, which is immediately extinguished; or place a mouse within the jar, and life is immediately destroyed: and although this substance supports neither life nor combustion, yet it forms four-fifths of the air we breathe. What useful purpose can it serve? This question we shall endeavour to answer in our subsequent papers.

SCIENTIFIC MEETINGS.

PARIS ACADEMY OF SCIENCES.—A paper on a remarkable phenomenon of the tides at the Sandwich Islands, on the 7th November, 1837, as recorded by M. T. C. Byde Rooke, was lately read. On the evening and night of the day above named a commotion of the sea was witnessed at Honolulu, in many respects similar to that experienced at these islands in May, 1819. One inch and a half of rain had fallen during the previous twenty-four hours; the wind was fresh from the N.E., squally at intervals; the atmosphere was clear and cool, the thermometer at 74·5; the barometer had gradually fallen during the four previous days, but this evening had again risen to 30·06. At six o'clock the alarm was given that the sea was retiring; the recession was somewhat more than eight feet; the reefs surrounding the harbour were left dry, and the fish aground were mostly dead; the sea quickly returned, and in twenty-eight minutes reached the height of an ordinary high tide; it then receded, and fell six feet. On the third rising it attained the height of four inches above the high water mark, and fell again six feet four inches. The rapidity with which the water fell varied in different parts of the harbour; on the east side, the greatest rapidity noticed was six inches in a minute, but on the north, at one time during the third recession, it fell twelve inches in thirty seconds. At no time did the water rise higher than a common spring tide, but the fall was about six feet below low water mark. The same occurrence is said to have taken place in 1819, when the tide rose and fell thirteen times in the space of a few hours, but on neither occasion was there any perceptible motion or trembling of the earth, or unusual appearance of the atmosphere. The same phenomena were observed at Mani and Hawaii. On the leeward side of Mani, the same rise and fall took place as at Honolulu, but on the windward part of the island the sea retired about twenty fathoms, and quickly returned in one gigantic wave, sweeping everything before it. At a village called Kahuling, district of Wailuku, on the sea retiring the inhabitants followed it, catching the fish, when all at once the sea returned, overwhelming the multitude, but fortunately their amphibious habits diminished the danger, and only two lives were lost; the canoes were, however, all destroyed. At Byron's Bay, Hawaii, the sea at half-past six retired at the rate of four or five knots an hour, reducing the soundings from four to three and a half fathoms at the anchorage, and leaving a great extent of the harbour dry. The inhabitants ran down to the beach, when the same scene took place as at Mani, and had it not been for the assistance afforded by the British whale ship, 'Admiral Cockburn,' many lives would have been lost, for the canoes were all destroyed. In Kanokapa

and Kaahelu alone sixty-six houses were destroyed, and eleven persons lost their lives; at Kauwali Swoman no shock of earthquake was felt; but the volcanoes of Kilawa were much disturbed the previous evening; yet nothing unusual was observed at sea at the same distance. That this apparent submarine volcanic action took place at some distance from the islands was proved by the waves striking the different islands simultaneously, but in what direction there are no means at present of determining. Perhaps the internal fires had found a new vent, which may lay the foundation of a new group of islands, as happened nineteen and a half years ago.

ARMSTRONG'S HYDRO-ELECTRIC MACHINE.

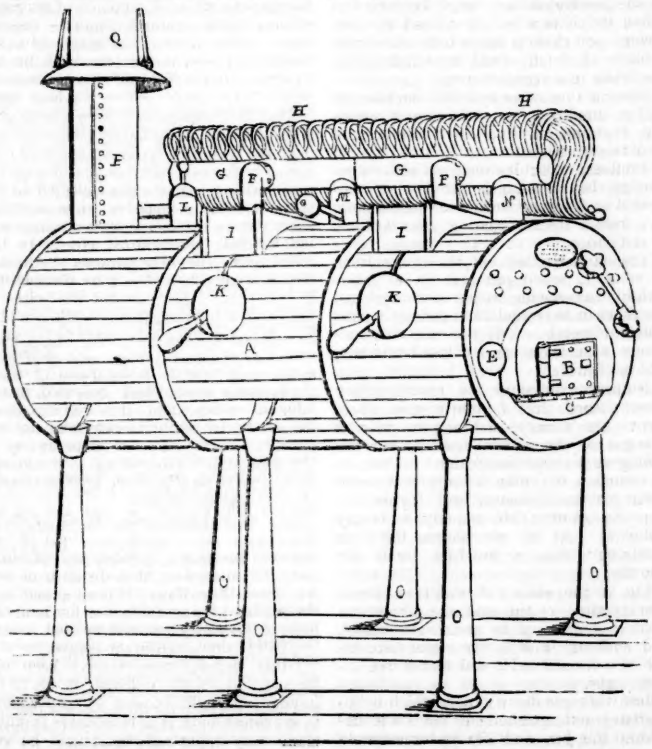
THE extraordinary powers of this machine were exhibited publicly on Monday, at the Royal Polytechnic Institution.

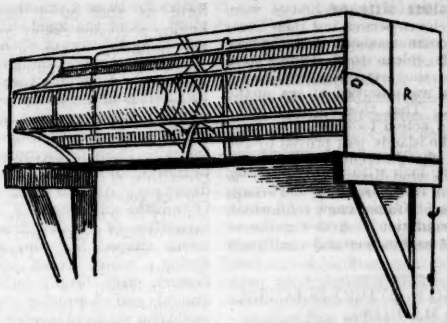
We commence with a description of the machine itself, in reference to the diagrams. Fig. 1 is the boiler, and No. 2 the conductor.

Fig. 1.—A, the boiler, is of the same form as that of a locomotive engine, having a wooden casing over it to prevent the radiation of the heat. The boiler is 7 feet 6 inches long, and 3 feet 6 inches in diameter. It is made of iron plate, 5-8ths of an inch in thickness. B, the fire door; C, the ash pit; D, the water gauge; E, the feed-valve, to attach a force-pump to; F F, tubes which convey the steam to the cross-tube G G, into which are inserted 46 curved condensing pipes, H H; at the extremity of which are the jets, which are made of hard wood,* and fixed into the end of the curved tubes. These pieces of wood are perforated to the extent of $\frac{1}{8}$ of an inch, through which the steam passes into the atmosphere. I I is a box, under which the side valves are concealed, which are opened and shut by the handles projecting from the round surface K K.

L, the safety valve, the steam from which blows off up the chimney P, which is furnished on the top with a sliding cap

* Mr Armstrong prefers these jets to be made of partridge wood.





and funnel, so that when the machine is put into operation the funnel may be raised, and the boiler, standing on glass legs O, is completely insulated. M, the indication valve; N covers the jet for the ball experiment. The diagram fig. 2 represents the conductor, which is composed of four rows of points of brass, contained in an open-ended zinc box, 7 feet long and 1 foot 10 inches wide. The jets play their steam upon these points, which convey the positive electricity from it, which leaves the boiler in a negative state.

Having thus described the machine we will go through a few of the most interesting experiments that have been made with this instrument.

Professor Bachhoffner, under whose charge the machine is placed, has succeeded in lighting wood shavings, paper, &c., from a stream passing *from the earth* to the boiler.

The large battery, containing a surface of 80 feet, was discharged by a grain-weight electrometer, weighted at 20 grains, six times in 58 seconds, and deflagrated six different metals. All the usual experiments of electricity are produced with ten-fold brilliancy.

Nothing can show its extraordinary power more than a comparative statement: the battery just alluded to was charged by the colossal electric machine belonging to the Institution in 50 to 60 seconds; the plate of which is above seven feet in diameter, and turned by a power from a steam engine nearly equal to that of two horses, the plate revolving above a hundred times per minute.

The decomposition of water is clearly demonstrated by this machine, which was never accomplished by electricity before, and hydrogen and oxygen gases are devolved and collected in different tubes.

A galvanometer of no extraordinary delicacy is permanently deflected fully 45 degrees; and magnetism has been developed in a bar of soft iron when enclosed in a helix of copper wire.

The elective current set in motion by the machine was caused to pass through a series of glass tubes inserted in wine glasses connected by cotton thread, and containing respectively distilled water—distilled water acidified with one-sixth of its volume of sulphuric acid—solution of sulphate of soda reddened with acidified litmus—solution of sulphate of magnesia reddened with acidified litmus—distilled water coloured with acidified litmus—distilled water coloured blue with litmus. The two first-mentioned glasses were in pairs. The result was as follows: upon setting the machine in motion a stream of small bubbles immediately began to rise from the platinum wires which were contained in the several tubes, and it soon became evident that the gas collected in the tubes containing negative wires occupied exactly *twice* the *volume* of that which was evolved from the *positive* wires. In the course of two or three minutes the liquids which were coloured red by the acidified litmus became blue around the wires in the tubes containing them, while the blue liquids in the other tubes were to the same extent changed to red. No difference could be perceived in the quantity of gas of the same kind, which collected in the different tubes, and the decomposition seemed to be neither accelerated nor retarded by making a small interruption in the conducting wire, so as to cause the electricity to pass in short sparks instead of in a uniform current.

The jet which is under the cover at N, when made to play at an angle of 45 degrees, sustains a wooden ball of three inches in diameter, at a distance of two feet from the orifice. It is supposed that the steam issuing from the jet is in the form of a hollow cone, and by that means the ball is supported in the centre.

Other singular results have been obtained, and as the machine is yet in its infancy, and will become by experiment better understood, it is reasonable to anticipate very important results will be obtained.

Miscellaneous.

A Swedish Spring.—It is spring in the north, and all the town-dwellers are bidden as guests to the rural festivity. Veronica and Stellaria embroider the splendid cloth which covers the festive table, the mid-day torch is lighted, the bird with its melodious sighs — "the wandering voice,"—and the lark with its joyous song calls out to the rich woods, to the sunny field; they sing: "Come, come! Glorious is life in the country!" And the town-gates open, and an innumerable multitude stream out from the confined to the free. Here we see the family *calèche* with papa and mamma, and little sons and daughters placed amongst the bundles and packets; there the more modest gig, with the father and mother, and the little one who sits squeezed between them; here the stately landau with the "Marshal of the Court," the Countess, and the parroquet—where are they all going? To the country—to the country! to estates, and country-houses, orangeries, conservatories, dairies, distilleries, &c. &c. &c. Who can count all the bobbing chaises which carry hungry men ready for dinner out to the inns in the fields? What healths there to the memory of Bellman!* Let us see the foot passengers who wander out of the gates of Stockholm to enjoy life in the beautiful scenery around. Here we have a respectable family of artisans, who go to spread their cloth on the green plots of the Djurgarden; here a couple of lovers who go to pick forget-me-not, and to write their names on the leg of a statue in the park near the Drottningholm.† See that elegant family party! ladies with parasols, and gentlemen in frock coats, standing with bunches of lilac in their hands round the great urn at Rosendal, peeping and wondering if the Royal family will appear! If you wish to see more finished or more witty sketches, seek for them in Count Hjalmar Mörner; but yet a few more hasty contours of the friendly scenes of spring. Young girls dance with light feet out in the fields, forget all the vanity and show with which their town life had infected them, and flowers amongst flowers, they become simple, beautiful, and faultless as they; they form friendships, they bind wreaths, they praise God, and are happy. Young men swarm out among the woods, the winds, and the waters—the strength, which is streaming through nature, enhances the life in their bosoms; they think the whole world is theirs, every rosy tint of morning, every golden evening cloud, writes for them a promise of victories and glory. And the aged—they go out, supported by the arm of a son, oftener by that of an affectionate daughter, oftener yet perhaps by a crutch; they go out to warm themselves in the sun; to sit on a bench, and hear the song of the birds, and breathe in the fresh air, to rejoice themselves in the sun; the more fortunate amongst them to rejoice themselves in their grandchildren's joy. And the children, the children! O ye little, soft, beautiful, innocent beings, favourites of God and men, the spring seems shaped for you, and ye for the spring; when I see you amongst the flowers, with bright butterflies dancing around you, I wonder what the higher world can yet have lovelier.—*Mary Howitt.*

The Century before the Reformation.—It would be difficult to select from the pages of history a century more rich in important inventions and discoveries than that immediately preceding the Reformation. The route to India, by the way of the Cape of Good Hope, was discovered by Vasco de Gama, 1498. The date of the discovery of the mariners' compass is uncertain, but it had become in general use by about the middle of the fifteenth century, and this leads us to notice that great event, which, without the compass, could never have taken place—the discovery of America by Columbus, 1493. The giant art of printing, Luther's great auxiliary in effecting the Reformation, was invented by Guttenburg, who had printed his bible by 1455. And to this period also belongs the invention of clocks, gunpowder, fire arms, and paper making. Of the men of genius and learning who flourished about this time, we may enumerate Machiavel, celebrated for his political writings; Ariosto, the Italian poet; Sir Thomas More, and his friend, the learned Erasmus; Copernicus, the astronomer; Rabelais, the satirist; Gavin Douglas, the poet and divine; and the reformers Luther, Melancthon, and Calvin.—*Druids' Quarterly Magazine.*

* A favourite comic poet, and writer of comic songs, died in 1769.—M. H.

† A palace in the lake Mälern, near Stockholm. The summer residence of the Crown Prince and Princess of Sweden.—M. H.

The Gatherer.

EPIGRAM.

Quoth Kate to Tom with tender leer,
One night that he was "muggy:"
"A one-horse chaise my heart would cheer."
Quoth Tom: "You have your wish, my dear,
"Our bed's *a little buggy.*"

The Chiltern Hundreds.—The Chiltern hills are a chain of eminences, composed of chalk and loam mixed with flints, separating the counties of Bedford and Hertford, passing through the middle of Bucks, from Tring, in Hertfordshire, to Henley, in Oxfordshire. Anciently they were covered with thickets of beech-wood, but these have long since been cleared. Burnham, Desborough, and Stoke are the three

Chiltern Hundreds which have a steward appointed by the Chancellor of the Exchequer, with a salary of 20s. and all fees. By accepting this nominal office, a member vacates his seat in Parliament.

Receipt for making Grape Wine.—Water, 4¼ gallons, beer measure; grapes, 5 gallons beer measure, crushed and soaked in the water seven days; sugar, 17½lbs. at 10½d. per lb.—the grapes, perhaps, 5s. The cask in which it was made held exactly 6¾ gallons beer measure, and produced 34 bottles of wine clear. A bottle of the above wine kept 10 years, and proved very good.—*Loudon's Gardeners' Magazine.*

"*Pytte and Gallowes.*"—To many baronies, both spiritual and temporal, as well as to some corporations, was formerly annexed the right of hanging male and drowning female delinquents. The extensive privileges claimed and exercised by the great feudatories, within their respective jurisdictions, justify Spelman's description, that every superior lord was a petty king over his dependents. The Regia Majestas of Scotland mentions certain criminal pleas belonging to some baronies, and particularly to such as had and held their own court with soc and sac, gallows and pit, toill and theme, infangtheife and outfangtheife; all of which, except the power over life and death, were enjoyed by the same class of persons, the thanes and bishops, in the time of Edward the Confessor.—*Roger de Hoveden.*

The Human Mind.—The mind of man is not only very elastic, but possessed of an expansive power, often unsuspected and unknown to the world, his associates, or even to himself, until it is called into action by either accident or design; and these powers may, and often do, lie dormant during his whole life's existence, unless roused by some one particular stimulus or excitement. Physiologists well know that every organ of the body requires its own particular stimulus to call it into action; as, for instance, the food to excite the digestive power of the stomach, the atmospheric air for respiration, and even vitality itself for the circulation of the blood."—*Dr Jeffrey.*

Paganini.—This great musician is reported, just before his death, to have expressed a wish that his favourite bow should be enclosed in his coffin, saying:—"I wish to take it with me to the other world, that, by playing a tune to Satan and his crew, I may charm them from playing me any of their devilish tricks."

Old Newspapers.—Many people take newspapers, but few preserve them; yet the most interesting reading imaginable is a file of old newspapers. It brings up the very age, with all its bustle and every-day affairs, and marks its genius and its spirit more than the most laboured description of the historian. Who can take a paper dated half a century ago, without the thought that almost every name there printed is now cut upon a tombstone at the head of an epitaph?

The Moon and the Earth.—"Sweet Moon," said the Earth to her one day, "why dost thou grow every now and then so black in the face? Why dost thou not always shine bright, and glad me with the light of thy countenance?"—"Most venerable spouse," said Luna, "thou wouldst grow tired of me, were I always dressed in smiles. Thou wouldst care as little about me as if I were always dark and sulky, plodding my unseen way beside thee."—*Citizen.*

Dr Radcliffe.—The best anecdote told of this excellent physician is that which shows how well he could bear misfortune. When in a speculation with Betterton the actor, he lost 6,000*l.*, while the latter suffered to the amount of 2,000*l.*, he condoled with his friend on his misfortune, but said for himself, "he had only to trot up 6,000 pairs of stairs, and all would be right again."

The Ancient Stage.—What is now the stage consisted of three several platforms, or tiers, one above another: on the uppermost was perched the Pater Cœlestis, surrounded by his angels; on the second holy saints and glorified men; while the lowest was occupied by those who had not yet passed from the transitory state to the regions of eternity. On one side of the lowest platform was the semblance of a dark, pitchy cavern, from whence issued fire and flames, and when necessary, the audience were treated with discordant yelling and noises; while, ever and anon, for their delight and instruction, devils ascended from beneath.—*Strutt.*

How to read Letters from one's Wife.—The boatswain's mates and the quartermasters are really handsome men, weather-beaten and bold (when speaking of the mates and crew of the 'Actæon'). Williams, one of the latter, seems a most eccentric character; he is a married man, and consequently receives letters from his absent rib; these, however, he never takes the trouble to open, but keeps them all neatly tied up. On his return, he says, she can read them to him all of a lump.—*Auldjo's Journal of a Visit to Constantinople.*

A Solicitor.—Dr Johnson apologised, and defended himself from the imputation of backbiting, when he called a man, not then present, an "Attorney." Those of the craft prefer hearing themselves styled "Solicitors." The same Dr Johnson, on being asked the difference between an attorney and a solicitor, replied—much the same as between a crocodile and an alligator.—A servant girl at Woolwich married, so she said, a respectable solicitor. He

was *solicitor* to the Diamond Company!—a touter to a steam-boat!

Cromwell's Religious Character.—Such was the temper and discipline of his mind, moulded not merely to military subordination, but to the precepts of Christianity, sanctity, and sobriety, that all the good and valiant were irresistibly drawn to his camp, not only as to the best school of martial science, but also of piety and religion, and those who joined it were necessarily rendered such by his example.—*Milton.*

Sir Matthew Hale.—This great luminary of law having condemned a poor woman to death for witchcraft, took occasion to sneer at the rash innovators who were then advocating a repeal of the statute; and falling on his knees, thanked God "for being enabled to uphold one of the sagest enactments handed down to us by our venerable forefathers."

Discovery of America foretold.—In Seneca's 'Medea,' the chorus distinctly predicts the discovery of America, which took place 1,400 years after that drama was written. In this passage here alluded to, it is said, is a new Tiphys, a son of the earth, will in ages to come, discover remote regions towards the west, and Thule will no longer be the extremity of the universe.

New Year's Day at Rambree.—In the island of Rambree, in the East Indies, at the festival of Sangrain Kyadeh, new year's day (which occurs in April) is celebrated with an odd sportive game. The women throw water over the men, who generally return the compliment; no distinction is paid to rank. The water is thrown indiscriminately and with an unsparing hand, upon high, and low, and all seem determined to enjoy a season that permits of such an unlimited freedom.

Peter the Great's Cottage.—At Amsterdam the wonderful cottage built by Peter the Great is preserved in a brick house erected to save it from decay. Over a fireplace appears a small slab placed there by the Emperor Alexander when he visited Holland, in honour of the founder of the Russian empire.

To restore Obliterated Writings.—To half a pint of pale sherry put six or eight of the whitest dyeing galls, bruised; let them stand in the sun about five days, and then put them on the defaced writing, and it will almost immediately revive it.

Psalmody.—Few people are aware of the antiquity of some of the tunes to which the metrical psalms are sung. One called "York" is ascribed to no less a person than Milton; but it was composed by the poet's father. The old 100th is usually attributed to Martin Luther, and it was certainly in use in his time. Perhaps this venerable melody is never heard so effectively as when poured forth by a host of infant voices at the annual meeting of the charity children at St Paul's. The Emperor Alexander of Russia, who had seen many fine things in his time, declared that meeting to be the most sublime and affecting scene he had ever witnessed.

— The temperance societies of Liverpool are about to erect a monument to Father Mathew.—One to another great philanthropist, the Abbé de l'Epée, was inaugurated at Versailles on the 25th of last month.

— The world is a comedy to those who think—a tragedy to those who feel.—*Horace Walpole.*

— "Mother," said a boy the other day, "is there any harm in breaking egg shells?" "Certainly not, my dear; but why do you ask?" "'Cause I dropt the basket just now, and see what a mess I'm in."

TO CORRESPONDENTS.

"A Parent."—We have no doubt by the symptoms shown that the child has eaten a small portion of hemlock, while picking the bramble berries. The Conium maculatum *(common hemlock) grows abundantly in the hedge-rows, the virtues of which, when used medicinally, are supposed to reside in an alkali* (conia). *It is one of the most deadly of the vegetable poisons. The treatment, when it has been taken, should be as follows, as well as for all narcotico-acrid poisons of the same class:—An emetic of sulphate of zinc; the vomiting should be encouraged by giving demulcent drinks. If symptoms of cerebral congestion take place, bleed. When the poison is removed from the stomach, give acidulated liquids. If the poison has been long taken, cordials and stimulants are required; you must be guided by symptoms, but in all cases send quickly for your medical attendant.*

"A. A."—We cannot answer his question in the pages of the 'Mirror,' although it is a question strictly in conformity with the science of surgery. We refer him to 'Fyfe's Compendium to the Anatomy of the Human Body.'

"G. H."—To Etch on Glass:—Clean a sheet of glass, and varnish over the surface. When the varnish is dry, take a sharp-pointed tool and scratch off the varnish where you desire your figure to be represented. When this is done, take one part of powdered fluorspar, put it into a leaden basin, add to it two parts of sulphuric acid, lay the glass, with its engraved side downwards, on the basin, and heat it by a lamp, or any convenient means, the underside of the basin, until white fumes appear. The glass must remain over the fumes for ten or fifteen minutes, and all the surface that was scratched by the pointed tool will be corroded or eaten into the glass. The varnish may then be removed by a little turpentine.

"E. A. A."—It may be "the opacity of his understanding," but we should rather think it must be that of his spectacles, or he would have seen, p. 180, *that his hint was attended to, and the error corrected.*

The question as to covers we must answer in the negative.

"A. J." must excuse us, but we cannot give answers to a string of trifling interrogatories and remarks which could not interest our readers generally. He had better "bestow his tediousness" on some larger publication, where there may be room for twaddle.

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